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ABSTRACT

Many educational administrators are too overwhelmed by paperwork and too short of time, resources, and training, to be effective leaders. Yet some educators and schools are finding ways to make good leadership easier through improving time management skills, providing assistants, instituting administrative training programs, and cutting paperwork. Most literature on leadership effectiveness centers around one or more of three requirements: an appropriate leadership style, effective decision-making structures, and a healthy educational climate that fosters good relationships with staff, students, and community. An integration of all these factors will produce the most effective leaders. This paper summarizes and analyzes information from many authors in the field and contains thoughts from 17 school and school district administrators who were interviewed concerning good leadership. (Author)

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LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Jo Ann Mazzarella

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Besides processing documents and journal articles, the Clearinghouse has another major function—information analysis and synthesis. The Clearinghouse prepares bibliographies, literature reviews, state-of-the-knowledge papers, and other interpretive research studies on topics in its educational area.

FOREWORD

Both the Association of California School Administrators and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management are pleased to cooperate in producing the *School Management Digest*, a series of reports designed to offer educational leaders essential information on a wide range of critical concerns in education.

At a time when decisions in education must be made on the basis of increasingly complex information, the *Digest* provides school administrators with concise, readable analyses of the most important trends in schools today, as well as points up the practical implications of major research findings.

By special cooperative arrangement, the series draws on the extensive research facilities and expertise of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. The titles in the series were planned and developed cooperatively by both organizations. Utilizing the resources of the ERIC network, the Clearinghouse is responsible for researching the topics and preparing the copy for publication by ACSA.

The author of this report, Jo Ann Mazzarella, was commissioned by the Clearinghouse as a research analyst and writer.

S. Lee Hawkins
President
ACSA

Philip K. Piele
Director
ERIC/CEM

INTRODUCTION

"Fail to honor people,
They fail to honor you;"
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will all say, "We did this ourselves."

Laotzu

The part of an educational administrator's job that constitutes "leadership" is at the same time the most important component and the most difficult to isolate. It is clear that everything school administrators do is not leadership, and yet it is less clear exactly what activities fall into this category. Can filling out forms or making reports be leadership? Can it include having a friendly chat with a teacher or comforting a distraught child?

Some twenty-five centuries after Laotzu wrote the poem quoted above, a remarkably similar view of leadership was expressed in a professional journal for educators: "Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives" (George Terry, cited in an issue of *The Reflector* entitled "Leadership Training"). If this definition is accepted, then anything that leaders do—from pushing paper to having a heart-to-heart talk—that helps them influence people to "strive willingly for group objectives" is leadership.

The key word in this definition and the link between it and Laotzu's poem is the word "willingly." The days of school administrators who, like generals, measured their effectiveness merely by whether the troops obeyed are long gone. Administrators are no longer interested in having the power to give unquestioned orders; they are now interested in having the ability to influence.

The work of educational researchers on leadership effectiveness mostly focuses on leadership style and decision-making methods. This rather narrow view of the topic is not shared by educational practitioners, who appear to see leadership effectiveness as something much broader, touching on almost

everything administrators do, from time management to saying a cheery hello to students in the halls. These pages constitute an attempt to integrate these two approaches, to present useful research findings as well as helpful ideas from practitioners in the field.

Many ideas on leadership effectiveness presented here were solicited from practicing administrators through telephone interviews in California, Washington, and Oregon. Most of these administrators were identified as outstandingly effective by Jim Olivero, an educator who has had long experience with educational leaders in California, especially through the leadership training programs of the Association of California School Administrators (ACSA).

The administrators interviewed are not necessarily the *most* effective educational leaders on the West Coast, and they are certainly not the *only* effective leaders. They are not even the only outstanding leaders identified by Olivero. No attempt was made to compile an exhaustive list or even a scientific sample.

The purpose of the interviews was rather to solicit ideas from some administrators who are doing a good job. While not a formal poll or attempt at data-gathering, the interviews instead offered administrators a chance to talk about the subject they know best—their jobs.

What makes the information from the interviews most valuable, perhaps, is that all the administrators came across as dynamic and successful educators who have great hope for the future of education in general and educational administration in particular. While all agreed that being a principal or superintendent is a tough, demanding job, they all seemed to feel able to rise to the challenge.

Some administrators interviewed at first requested not to be identified. They did not want to imply that they believed they were possessed of superior knowledge or abilities. "Administrators who think they've got all the answers are just stupid," protested one administrator. Another felt that other administrators, even within the same district, were equally if not better qualified to offer insights on effective leadership.

But in the end, all interviewed agreed to forgo anonymity. They accepted the idea that administrators need to tap each other's

strengths and to learn from each other. Administrators want and need to hear suggestions from educators who are not merely anonymous respondents to a questionnaire, but flesh and blood human beings whose schools can be visited and who can be called on the telephone. They need to hear from real individuals who are fighting the same problems they are and, at least sometimes, winning.

What constitutes leadership effectiveness? Or, put another way, what makes a leader influential? There are, of course, no magical answers, but most literature on leadership effectiveness centers around one or more of three requirements: an appropriate leadership style, effective decision-making structures, and a healthy educational climate that fosters good relationships with staff, students, and community. All three are considered in these pages.

Unfortunately, many educational administrators are unable to expend much energy on leadership style, decision-making structures, or educational climate. They feel overwhelmed by too much paperwork and not enough time. They feel powerless and ill prepared to be effective leaders. Like poverty-stricken individuals who are too busy concentrating on survival to worry about self-actualization or emotional health, these administrators are too busy responding to the many demands on them to worry about leadership. In the first two chapters, the basic concerns of these administrators will be addressed with suggestions to help make things easier for them.

WHY IS IT SO DIFFICULT?

Almost everybody agrees that being a good leader in education—whether it be principal, superintendent, or other administrator—is harder than it used to be. Many administrators today feel severely crippled by a plethora of paperwork and a lack of power, preparation, time, and resources.

Too Much Paper and Not Enough Time

A report on "The Changing Role of the Principal" in a recent issue of *ACSA Special Report* focused on a draft copy of a forthcoming California legislative report on the principal's changing role. One of the main contentions of this report appears to be that more and more administrators' time is taken up merely processing paperwork, especially to fulfill obligations under mandated categorical programs.

The legislative report identifies sixty responsibilities of a principal, from evaluation to student activities, and then takes forty-five pages to enumerate the components of all these responsibilities. For example, evaluation includes fulfilling all Stull Bill requirements as well as evaluating teaching methods, materials, personnel needs, special education staff, classified staff, and volunteers.

A study undertaken by Gorton and McIntyre for the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) echoes the same sentiments. Gorton and McIntyre asked a carefully selected national sample of sixty effective administrators about constraints that make the principal's job more difficult. Two of the three items cited most frequently were "too much paperwork" and "lack of administrative and secretarial assistance." It is noteworthy that most of the effective principals queried expressed a desire to leave their present jobs either to move up in the administrative ladder or leave education altogether.

A report from the Rio Linda Union School District, California, makes these problems graphic. The report focuses on the effects of

categorical programs on school districts and highlights the enormous amount of paperwork, meetings, and conferences the programs necessitate. The report concedes that these programs improve instructional practices, promote parental involvement, and encourage a wide variety of educational experiences. But the task of dealing effectively with "the requirements of all the programs at the same time, in the same place, and by the same people means overloading circuits," and the result is fewer real services for youngsters.

A chart accompanying the report identifies over thirty programs in which schools in the district may participate, including "MGM, educationally handicapped, counseling, SIP, Title I, EDY, Miller-Unruh, local textbook adoption, Title IV-C, Title IV-B, Title IX, 3.3, Indian education, limited English, non-English speaking, Foster Youth, and the Vietnamese program." All of them necessitate enormous amounts of paperwork. The job of completing or delegating this paperwork inevitably falls on administrators.

That principals have been bogged down in paperwork for a long time is suggested by the fact that in 1971 Goldhammer and his colleagues, in their classic study of the principalship, found the same thing. They noted that "the principal usually is required to spend a large part of his time on routine clerical and secretarial chores."

The administrators interviewed for this report spend an average of sixty hours a week on their jobs. When asked what constraints make her job (as principal of Walt Disney Elementary School in San Ramon, California) more difficult, Bonnie Solberg replied, "mandated programs that produce an incredible amount of paperwork and meetings." Solberg wished for more assistance with paperwork so she could spend more time on curriculum and dealing with people.

And from Gene Bedley, principal at El Camino School in Irvine, California:

> The job seems overwhelming at times. You can't help feeling overextended. I can see the effects of the pressures in the number of principals I know facing marital breakups. All these principals care about people or they wouldn't be having the kind of problems they're having. And, with the passage of

Proposition 13, there's no relief in sight.

If lack of writing on the topic is any indication, superintendents are not as deluged with paperwork as are principals. It seems noteworthy that none among the five superintendents and one assistant superintendent interviewed for this report focused on paperwork as a major constraint. It is difficult to be sure whether superintendents have less paperwork or just have enough experience, expertise, or assistance to deal with it more expeditiously.

Not Enough Resources or Power

In their 1971 study, Goldhammer and his associates noted that elementary schools were then "severely crippled" from lack of the "resources required to develop and maintain high quality educational programs." Seven years later, in 1978, effective administrators responding to Gorton and McIntyre's questionnaire again cited a limited budget as a major constraint.

Such problems are likely to get worse. All the California school administrators interviewed for this report were at that time frantically meeting with their school boards and other administrators in an attempt to deal with the implications of recently passed Proposition 13, the proposition severely limiting property taxes and school funds in California. Many were being forced to cut thousands of dollars from school budgets. If the number of similar propositions presented to voters in other states in autumn of 1978 is an indication of a trend, within the next few years school administrators across the country will be faced with similar or even more severe problems.

As well as being faced with a loss of resources, many administrators over the past decade have been feeling more and more powerless. Myers has noted that reasons for a loss of power might be:

- increased power of citizens
- control of the school by the local school board
- increased independence of teachers
- increased power of students
- growth of teacher organizations and collective bargaining

He might well have added as another reason the loss of confidence and negative public image schools are now suffering.

It is now clear that collective bargaining coupled with a general revolt against authoritarianism mean that the days of absolute power for school administrators are over. Tye has viewed the new role of the principal as that of a "power broker" or one who builds mechanisms through which those who have power can share it with those who desire it.

Alberta Martone, formerly principal of the Sonoma School (and now director of personnel for the Modesto City Schools) in Modesto, California, reported in a telephone interview that she sees the role of the principal changing to that of "facilitator" or "interpreter of the contract." The result: a loss of freedom for the principal.

On the specific effects of collective bargaining, Myers observed that principals no longer have power to make decisions concerning such things as class size, length of school day, transfers, and grouping policies. For many administrators, such a change in responsibilities results in a feeling of powerlessness.

Superintendents as well as principals feel a lack of both money and power. Shaheen and Pedrick have identified problems of superintendents today as including "fiscal and budgetary limitations, militancy of teacher and administrative organizations, and conflicting pressures of individuals and community groups."

One California superintendent, when interviewed, expressed an extremely negative view of collective bargaining, which he characterized as an "intense force for divisiveness." This administrator voiced his belief that "at times the union has an interest in causing chaos for the district."

Lack of Preparation

Not only are school administrators faced with a lack of time, resources, and power; most of them feel their training left them unprepared for dealing with these and other major problems.

Goldhammer and his colleagues noted "severe deficiencies" in principals' preparation programs, among them the necessary training for becoming an effective educational leader.

Because of the traditional nature of preservice programs in

> elementary school administration, principals tend to view their roles in "old-style" managerial terms. Such directive or managerial behavior severely damages the principal's effectiveness as an educational leader and too often results in unresolvable conflicts among administrators, teachers, and community groups.

They concluded, "Most principals recognize that they need help both through individual consultation and through inservice preparation programs."

Yet such help is rare, as Epstein has written:

> Too few school districts have systematic and deliberately planned programs for on-the-job training activities for their administrative staffs. Neither funds nor time allotments are available to administrators to obtain the training which would return rich dividends to the school system.

In the light of such constraints, talking to administrators about leadership effectiveness seems a little like talking about good nutrition to a person who is down to the last crust of bread. The topic is a worthwhile one but not relevant to the present level of crisis. Yet there appear to be at least some solutions to the very basic problems facing many administrators. Presented in the next chapter are some suggestions to help administrators become less overwhelmed and more able to begin to strive toward leadership effectiveness.

WHAT MAKES IT EASIER?

One of the most striking things about talking with school administrators who have been identified as effective leaders is their optimism about the job. Gorton and McIntyre found that, in spite of the constraints, most effective school administrators they interviewed "felt satisfied that the principalship today offers good opportunities for leadership."

How is it that a job that seems overwhelming to some administrators appears to others to be only a challenge? What are the elements that move leadership effectiveness from the realm of the impossible to the possible? These elements can be divided into two categories: characteristics of the job and abilities of administrators.

Many effective school administrators are simply in easier situations. They have more money and more assistance and, thus, more time. These things are largely outside the control of administrators. Other factors can be controlled. Most of these controllable factors involve skills and abilities that make it possible to handle the job more easily.

More Time

One of the most basic requirements for leadership effectiveness is adequate assistance. Gorton and McIntyre found that administrators they interviewed who felt free to spend their time on high priority items credited "capable assistants" for making this possible. Likewise, most administrators interviewed by this author called their assistance "adequate" (though several noted that the situation would soon change due to the passage of Proposition 13).

Burgess has suggested the appointment of an assistant principal for curriculum as a way to ease the burden on principals. Weischadle suggests part-time volunteer assistant principals to be selected from teachers seeking administrative experience. These volunteers might be rewarded by released time

or being excused from certain duties.

Clifford Gillies, former principal of Mariner High School (and now assistant superintendent with Mukilteo School District Number Six in Washington) in a telephone interview described an administrative arrangement that in his opinion "works very well." At Mariner High School in Mukilteo, Washington, a school of some fifteen hundred students, the principal concentrates on the instructional program, while two assistants focus on operational matters and student affairs.

Principal Vivian Marr at Moreno Valley High School in Sunnymead, California, explained that each year she and her two assistants redistribute their joint responsibilities. An attempt is made to give each member of the team some responsibilities in his or her area of expertise and some opportunity to learn new skills.

All is not so rosy for elementary school principals, however. Bonnie Solberg has no official assistants at Walt Disney Elementary School in San Ramon, California, but depends heavily on the help of teachers to whom she delegates responsibilities.

Bob Pedrick, superintendent of the Cupertino Union School District, manages the district through a "Superintendents' Council" made up of himself, an associate superintendent for business affairs, and an assistant superintendent for personnel and planning.

Another superintendent, Tom Giugni, of the Fairfield-Suisun Unified School District, in what he calls a "very decentralized" district, shares responsibilities with four assistants: two area superintendents, one assistant superintendent for educational services, and one deputy superintendent who handles such areas as transportation and food services. Giugni noted that, although he sometimes wishes for more help, he believes that too many team members can create more work.

Many administrators suggest that learning time management skills can help make the job easier to handle. Halverson has compiled a number of time management techniques for school administrators, including:

- blocking out large amounts of time for daily planning
- accounting for how time is spent
- prioritizing

- using time management tools like proper delegation, role definition, and secretary development

More and more educational administrators are looking to Drucker for time management suggestions and other executive skills. Drucker's work, although intended largely for managers of businesses, is often useful for educators. Drucker, dismissing "glittering panaceas" for time problems, such as speed reading, instead emphasizes the importance of planning. He puts it:

> Managers who know how to use time well achieve results by planning. They are willing to think before they act. They spend a great deal of time on thinking through the areas in which objectives should be set, a great deal more on thinking through systematically what to do with recurrent problems.

Most of the administrators consulted for this report stress the importance of time management techniques. Oakland Unified School District Superintendent Ruth Love follows Drucker's recommendation that a piece of mail should be handled only once; she routes letters to others or answers them immediately. She also eases the pressures in her sixty-five-hour week by "doing a lot of delegation."

Principal Vivian Marr, like many other administrators interviewed, plans each Friday for the week ahead. She works from a monthly plan to select the coming week's activities. Marr stresses the importance of leaving blocks of time open for emergencies. She allows flexibility in her schedule so she can be available when people come to her with unforeseen problems.

The necessity of delegating responsibilities is echoed over and over by effective school administrators. Assistant Superintendent (and former principal) Clifford Gillies stressed that administrators "must have enough trust and faith in people to delegate responsibilities." He suggested that some of the trivia that entangles principals is self-imposed. "We sometimes feel we are the only ones to fill out reports. It's often better to turn the job over to assistant principals, aides, teachers, auxiliary personnel, or even parents."

Added Principal Bill Hanauska of Sprague High School in Salem, Oregon:

> Use the talents of everyone you can find. Complement your own weaknesses with others' strengths. Be free to delegate and make people feel comfortable about their roles.

Of course, one way administrators can get more time for leadership is to be less inundated with paperwork. Although the number of mandated programs, with their accompanying sheaves of forms, seems to be rising every year, there is some hope. Publications such as the legislative report on the role of the school administrator summarized in "The Changing Role of the Principal" described earlier may focus legislators' attention on the plight of the school administrator and give rise to legislative measures to make the job easier to handle.

More Training

One help for administrators who are having trouble being effective leaders is leadership training. Many administrators feel that their coursework did not prepare them to be educational leaders. Training can come from outside experts or from within the district and may touch on every kind of needed ability from time management to human relations.

California State Assemblyman Dennis Mangers (himself a former principal), in an interview concerning a report on the principalship published by the California State Legislature, listed some of the skills and abilities that he felt most principals are now lacking. Mangers, chairman of the task force that prepared the report, stated that he believes school administrators must acquire more political acumen so they will stop allowing others to walk all over them. He also believes principals need more business-related skills such as budgeting and cost-effectiveness. In short, Mangers added, "There will always be some constraints on the principalship. The principal must become better able to cope with them."

The report itself contends that one does not have to look far to find training resources for principals. Needed skills and technical assistance can be found in district offices, county offices, state departments of education, professional organizations, colleges, universities, and even in principals'

offices. "The job is one of coordinating resources to link principals and others who possess the needed skills with those who need training and assistance. This job rests primarily with the school district except for those direct service districts which receive services from a county office of education."

Many administrators mentioned to the writer the value of the Association of California School Administrators' (ACSA) Project Leadership as a good way for administrators to get leadership training. Kipp, Thayer, and Olivero describe this program as a systematic training program that "combines the best research findings and practical applications." Each year, participants attend two workshops of three days. New participants must begin with eighteen hours in basic skills training in such areas as time management, school climate, or needs assessment. Advanced participants may choose from over fifty topics focusing on such competencies as human relations, decision-making, and support for instruction.

Some administrators cited courses and information from the American Management Associations as extremely helpful. Although aimed primarily at managers of business and industry, the courses contain many components useful to educational managers. These courses include leadership skills, management by objectives, speaking and listening skills, and time management. Courses are presented in the form of workshops and much less expensive self-administered audio-cassette workbook programs.

One of the few organizations that offer programs specifically for women in educational administration is the Center for Leadership Education with offices in Los Angeles and San Diego. According to Wayne Burnette, chairman of the board, courses here are in the form of twelve one-day sessions over a period of six months. Participants complete reading assignments on educational management, attend seminars, and take a practicum that relates management skills to specific job-related needs of participants.

Some administrators may prefer to set up leadership training programs within their own districts. An ACSA publication on strategies for administrative staff development provides steps to

follow in setting up such programs as well as examples of programs actually functioning in California. All programs described start with a needs assessment to determine what training is needed and wanted by administrators and others in the district. Components of one typical program include improving communication, creating a positive school climate, developing plans for change, and providing dynamic leadership.

The program for leadership training used by the Staff Development Branch of the Office of Instruction of the Los Angeles Unified School District is described in "Leadership Training" in the April issue of its publication *The Reflector*. According to this issue, the Los Angeles program focuses on three areas:

- technical skills, including methods, techniques, and equipment
- human skills, including motivation, communication, and interaction
- conceptual skills, including the ability to understand the complexities of the overall organization and the goals of the whole organization

A telephone interview with the publication's editor, Robert T. De Vries, revealed that the program is slated to begin in the fall of 1978 for seven to eight hundred participants. De Vries explained that the program, developed by himself, colleague Mark Robert, and others, grew out of their extensive organizational development training. According to De Vries, abilities the program will focus on include:

- determining and using appropriate leadership style in situations actually taken from administrators' own experiences
- using different kinds of decision-making techniques appropriately
- developing a collegial support system

Brainard has described a program for "Administrator Continuing Education" that integrates self-improvement needs of administrators and school improvement needs. Brainard avoids identifying specific abilities or competencies to be taught in the program and recommends instead that "each participant

should also identify changes in his own behavior and leadership which will be instrumental in facilitating school improvement goals and projects." Such a program places responsibility squarely on administrators to determine what skills they are lacking to be effective leaders and find resources to provide needed training.

One means of providing leadership training for administrators is for a school district to create an Office of Administrative Development similar to the one used in the Oakland Unified School District. Superintendent Ruth Love explained that this office provides staff development and assistance for administrators through workshops and presentations by outside consultants.

Losing the Feeling of Powerlessness

While many school administrators today feel powerless to have much effect on education, others feel secure in their ability to have real influence on their schools. Why? Effective administrators give much of the credit to supportive staff, community, and administration.

When asked "What makes your job easier?" Superintendent Ruth Love quickly replied, "The dedicated people on my staff and a community that is really interested in seeing the students improve."

Principal Don Hurst of the Meadowbrook Middle School in Poway, California, echoed, "It's easy to be a good coach if you've got excellent material." He feels that his job is made easier by "excellent support from parents and the district office and a top notch staff."

Superintendent Jessie Kobayashi of the Murray Elementary School District in Dublin, California, when asked the same question, credited a "strong board whose members do their homework, respect each other's ideas, and avoid personality clashes."

Of course, such support from parents, community, staff, administration, and board is to some degree a matter of luck. Often, new administrators find that support is not instantly

forthcoming from others.

Yet support and influence also depend on skill and hard work. There appear to be techniques that help administrators gain support and influence and lose their feelings of powerlessness. Among these are creating a positive school climate and sharing decision-making. These techniques are each so important as to warrant separate chapters of their own.

IMPROVING SCHOOL OR DISTRICT CLIMATE

Many educators see a good school or district climate as being central to leadership effectiveness. The theory is that if administrators can create a healthy climate or atmosphere, then support from subordinates can be easily gained.

Theories and Research Findings

Researchers' interest in organizational climate began in the early sixties when Halpin and Croft attempted to identify its components. To Halpin and Croft, the organizational climate of the school was the "personality" or the "feel" of the school. They identified six types of organizational climates arranged on a continuum from "open" to "closed." To these authors, an "open" climate was clearly the most desirable, and they were "struck forcibly" by the realization that the principal was an important force in the creation of such a climate:

> An essential determinant of a school's "effectiveness" as an organization is the principal's ability—or his lack of ability—to create a "climate" in which he, and other group members, can initiate and consummate acts of leadership.

What did Halpin and Croft mean by an "open" climate? They divided school climate into two components: leader characteristics and teacher characteristics. In an open climate, teachers work well together, do not feel hindered by unnecessary work, have high morale, and are on friendly social terms. Leaders relate to teachers in a personal face-to-face way, are highly task-oriented, are strongly motivated, and treat teachers "humanly" and with consideration. Halpin and Croft developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) to be used to determine both leader and subordinate characteristics of an organizational climate.

Halpin and Croft contended that an open school climate was likely to become more open over time, whereas a closed climate

would become more closed. Although Halpin and Croft claimed there was a link between leader behavior and school climate, they were content to measure and define the phenomenon, and offered no advice on how administrators could actually change their climates.

Some researchers began to doubt whether principals actually had an effect on school climate at all. In 1972 Wiggins published the findings of a study that suggested to him there was "no significant relationship between principal behavior characteristics and organizational climate." In his study Wiggins attempted to correlate school climate (as measured by the OCDQ) with leader behavior characteristics (as measured by several other instruments). He found no correlation. Wiggins found that while school climates varied from "open" to "closed," principal behaviors were remarkably alike.

Although this study might tempt administrators to throw in the towel as far as influencing school climate is concerned, it is far from conclusive. For one thing, 50 percent of the characteristics measured by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire are not climate characteristics but leader characteristics. Thus, fully one-half of Wiggins's correlations were not between leadership behaviors and school climate but between one type of leader behavior measure (on the OCDQ) and other types of leader behavior measures. Why is it that the leader behavior measures did not correlate with each other? Are some of them poor measures? This lack of correlation casts doubt not so much on a leader's effect on school climate as it does on the validity of the leadership behavior measures themselves and, by extension, the entire study.

There is another reason Wiggins's findings are not able to discredit the value of school climate improvement attempts. No administrators in his study were actually trying to improve school climate. Although it is possible, as Wiggins believed, that the mere presence of certain leader characteristics does not have much effect on school climate, the question of whether leaders who actively attempt to improve school or district climate can be successful still needs more research.

Still another facet of Halpin and Croft's theories has been

challenged by researchers. Walden, Taylor, and Watkins (in a study of sixty-five elementary schools) found that neither schools with open climates nor schools with closed climates experienced the intensification of these tendencies that Halpin and Croft had predicted would occur over time.

The theory and research on school climate may seem to many administrators to be of minimal interest and even less relevance to their daily lives. The hypothesis that an open climate becomes more open over time is not particularly useful to administrators and becomes positively useless in the light of research that indicates that it probably is not even true.

What administrators really want to know is how school climate can be improved. Unfortunately, very little data are available. As the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management publication "School Climate" concluded, "Administrators should remember that empirical research has yet to provide evidence of the effectiveness of proposed practical solutions to school climate problems."

Individual personal experiences of school administrators, however, provide some clues. Successes in a number of schools suggest that attempting to improve school climate may indeed be worth the trouble.

Practical Suggestions

One problem with literature on how to improve school climate is that there are as many ideas about what a healthy climate is and how to achieve it as there are ideas about what, in individuals, constitutes a healthy personality and how to achieve it. Yet, the actual experiences of school leaders suggest that this lack of agreement and the lack of any hard data concerning the effectiveness of school climate improvement efforts may not be insurmountable problems. What seems to be true in practice is that almost any approach to climate improvement undertaken with energy and optimism helps enormously to improve school morale, communication, and relationships with staff, students, and community. And to many administrators, these relationships are the foundation of leadership effectiveness.

Maynard has described efforts to improve school climate in Cleveland High School in Seattle. Like others on improving school climate, this article lacks a clear definition of what a good school climate is, but as evidence of improvement, Maynard cites the pride that once alienated and apathetic students now have in their school, and a significant fall in absentee rate. Maynard began by selecting a school climate improvement team of students and faculty to develop projects and ideas to improve the school. Such ideas included a student "who's who" committee, hall murals painted by students and focusing on the theme "We've got pride," and an increase in shared decision-making in the school. It is of note that Maynard, unlike early researchers, sees student morale as a central determiner of school climate.

Clark has listed "practical and specific suggestions" for improving school climate used by school districts. These include suggestions like forming a teacher advisory board, instituting a student forum, and issuing a variety of feedback forms for staff and students. An example of one feedback form is the "Quick Reply Form" on which a staff member is able to express an important concern that needs a reply within forty-eight hours. According to Clark, "When working smoothly, it's an excellent form, although eliminating critical feelings from the staff."

Even though Clark lists several components of what he considers school climate to be, the suggestions appear to rest on a rather fuzzy definition. School climate appears to mean everything from school morale to general school environment. Suggestions to have a bake sale (for no particular purpose), have monthly horoscope birthday parties, or institute evening instruction for parents seem to indicate that, to Clark, improving school climate just means everything from "planning fun things to do at school" to just generally "making things better."

Principal Don Hurst told the writer about one of his school's efforts to improve school climate: the "Wow Club." ("It's hard not to sound corny when you talk about these things," Hurst noted, "but the kids love it.") At his school, Meadowbrook Middle School in Poway, California, all staff members and custodians carry cards to be distributed to students whom they see doing something especially praiseworthy. A student with five cards is initiated into

the Wow Club and is awarded a certificate and Wow T-shirt at the next PTA Meeting. According to Hurst, because of this and other efforts there has been a big change in school climate over recent years; students seem happier and like school, and vandalism has dropped.

Superintendent Ruth Love described the Oakland Unified School District's efforts to improve school climate districtwide. In Oakland, a Climate Control Coordinator is available in the district office to help schools with climate problems such as vandalism or racial strife. The coordinator helps define the problem, poses solutions, and may identify resources to help. According to Love, this has "helped tremendously" especially in reducing vandalism.

In Cupertino, Superintendent Bob Pedrick reported, one of the main objectives of staff development efforts is improving school climate. The Public Information Office there also works toward improving school and district climate. For instance, a free-lance writer might be hired to write up interesting positive news about the district and try to sell the story to local papers.

Ways a school principal can begin to improve school climate have been suggested by Phi Delta Kappa. Their publication sees the administrator's role as assessing needs, setting goals, and reducing goals to manageable projects. As an assessment instrument, the authors recommend and include the CFK Ltd. School Climate Profile. This profile lists specific ideas and allows the respondent to indicate which are desirable. Two examples are as follows:

- Students are given alternative ways of meeting curriculum requirements.
- The school operates under a set of rules that were worked out with students, teachers, parents, and administrators all participating.

Shaheen and Pedrick have adapted this Phi Delta Kappa publication to help superintendents and other central office administrators improve school district climate. Shaheen and Pedrick see the superintendent as having enormous influence on school district climate; "few top administrators are in a position to have as positive an impact upon an organization as does the superintendent of schools."

These authors list four "school district climate determinants":

- varied learning environments
- opportunities for active learning
- individualized performance expectations
- rules cooperatively determined

Building Trust

Most definitions of good school climate include the concept of trust. A good school climate often means trusting, open relationships among leaders, staff, students, and community. Because trust is what makes subordinates follow leaders willingly, it is an important requirement for leadership effectiveness.

Halpin and Croft were the first to identify trusting relationships and good communication as important components of a positive school climate. Characteristics of their "open" climate include "low disengagement" (teachers work well together), "high esprit" (teachers feel their social needs are satisfied), "low aloofness" (the principal is accessible and often communicates face-to-face), and "high consideration" (the principal treats teachers in a considerate "human" way).

Former Principal Alberta Martone, when asked what in her opinion was the most important part of her job as principal, answered, "Making everyone in the organization feel important. Parents, students, and teachers must all feel that they are an important link." Fostering this feeling helps develop solid trusting relationships with subordinates and strengthens administrators' support.

The reason collective bargaining is not as difficult for some administrators as it is for others is evidenced by this comment from Principal Don Hurst:

> A principal can't wait to work things out until negotiations start. You must have a strong, open, and honest relationship with staff to get through. It is the job of the principal to establish this relationship.

Superintendent Bob Pedrick described his district's efforts to build a strong positive relationship among administrators and

staff. He tries to spend some time each week in the schools. In the fall, he meets informally with every faculty. Pedrick feels that the personnel office "has a great influence on morale, and personnel employees are trained to treat staff with great tact." In addition, social activities are held for teachers and classified staff.

Positive trusting relationships are often built on lots of communication—communication that goes both ways. Schmuck and his colleagues have described exercises for improving communication often used in organization development training. Starting with the most basic of communication skills, paraphrasing, the authors suggest several ways to make sure organizational members know how to listen to each other. In one exercise, a leader asks each member of a small work group, "What is the most important problem facing our group?" One member answers the question, and then the next member must paraphrase the previous answer before adding his or her own. The authors further suggest using the exercises with two-person units who work together, and then repeating the exercises between these two individuals and another pair. Each member explains his or her partner's answer to the members of the other pair.

What methods do administrators use for communication? Superintendent Tom Giugni reported that in the Fairfield-Suisun Unified School District the Superintendent's Council meets in each school for two hours every month. In this meeting, Giugni talks for one hour and then listens to concerns of parent leaders for one hour.

Principal Don Hurst visits the faculty room each morning to talk with faculty and listen to concerns and complaints. Principal Bonnie Solberg sends out monthly newsletters and calls one home every day with some positive news about a child.

Superintendent Bob Pedrick stresses the importance of creating opportunities for all community points of view—radical, conservative, and moderate—to be heard. In January of each year Cupertino's Budget Committee meets with representatives of any community organizations that want to participate. All opinions are heard. Notes Pedrick,

> I always learn some things from this process. The right, the left, and the middle—each sometimes has the best answer. The final process must be an amalgamation of a number of people's ideas, but before that, the superintendent *must listen*.

The kind of communication going on in Cupertino is closely related to how decisions are made. Indeed, many authors (including Shaheen and Pedrick, Clark, and Phi Delta Kappa) believe that shared decision-making methods and a positive school climate are inseparable. The importance of decision-making to leadership effectiveness is the subject of the next chapter.

DECISION-MAKING

Researchers and practitioners agree that an important basis of leadership effectiveness is how decisions are made. The structures for making decisions appear to have direct effect on how easily leaders can "influence others to strive willingly for group goals."

For the last several years, educators—through both research and experience in the field—have been discovering that sharing power with others appears to be an important requirement for leadership effectiveness. While some educational leaders are overwhelmed by a feeling of powerlessness, others are coming to the realization that they have merely traded their old authoritarian power for a new (and more effective) influence on others.

As Assistant Superintendent (and former principal) Clifford Gillies put it:

> Actually, the principal's influence can be as strong now as ever before. What is needed is a change in how decisions are made. This change can be a positive thing because involving others in making decisions means they are going to be committed to those decisions. It's not so much losing authority as it is exercising authority in a way that works.

Theories and Research Findings

Unlike the research on school climate, the research on decision-making is extremely relevant and helpful to school administrators. Most of this research reveals the value of a participative decision-making system.

Piper, in a revealing study, found that decisions made by a group were more correct than decisions made by the same individuals acting alone. Piper gave the same test twice to the same subjects. The first time everyone took the test separately and worked strictly alone. The second time, some individuals again worked on the test alone while others worked in groups. One group used "consultation" to solve the test; that is, a leader

chose the answers with the help of consultation from others. A second group used "consensus"; that is, everyone in the group had to agree on the answer. Both groups had significantly more correct answers than did the individuals who again worked alone on the test.

Gorton and McIntyre in their study of effective principals found that most effective principals used one or more of these strategies for change:

- involving those who will be affected rather than imposing change
- suggesting ideas to staff rather than acting alone
- providing needed resources and getting the support of significant individuals

Bachman and Tannenbaum, working together on two mutually confirming studies, found that individuals tend to be more satisfied when they have more control over their jobs and more satisfied with the parts of their jobs over which they have the most control. In the first study, the researchers tested 144 insurance company clerks and found that when employees were given more responsibility for decision-making, their satisfaction increased. In the second study (with 489 workers in an oil refinery and 4,199 persons in an automobile plant) they found, using the Weitz General Satisfaction Test, that workers were most satisfied with those aspects of their lives over which they had the most control.

Balderson asked 426 teachers in forty-one elementary schools why they acquiesced to their principal's demands. Respondents were asked to choose among five kinds of principal power:

- personal power (personal qualities)
- expert power (competence and judgment)
- reward power (ability to give rewards)
- coercive power (ability to give punishments)
- legitimate power (status and position)

Most (73 percent) responded that they were influenced by principals because of their expert power. In addition, this 73 percent had higher morale and satisfaction with principal performance. Balderson's findings suggest that those who contend that principals are powerless because they cannot reward

or punish are only partially right. It is true that principals have little ability to reward or punish, but they can be influential nevertheless, especially if they have good training and judgment.

This study also suggests that even though leadership effectiveness appears to rest (at least partially) on sharing decisions, leaders must be more than pollsters who merely implement what others want to do. Subordinates are most satisfied when leaders have relevant knowledge to help in decision-making. In education this expert power, once again, is possible only if training programs and inservice education are markedly improved.

Knoop and O'Reilly asked 192 teachers how they felt decisions should be made about textbook selection, curriculum planning, and curriculum evaluation. While most teachers felt they should have sole responsibility for selecting textbooks, in the other areas teachers did not want sole responsibility nor did they want to give principals total responsibility. Instead, most favored some sort of shared decision-making, either through majority rule or a system of "consultation" in which the principal makes the decision with a lot of input from teachers.

What kind of shared decision-making is best? Lowell compared the level of satisfaction among groups that made decisions by consensus, consultation, and majority rule. He found that consensus groups were most satisfied, that "centralist" groups (who used consultation) were slightly less satisfied, and that majority-vote groups were markedly less satisfied. Lowell reasoned that consensus decision-making makes participants more open to other points of view. He attributed the success of centralist groups to the self-worth of members being reinforced by leaders listening to their viewpoints. Majority vote, however, tended to foster a divisive feeling of competition.

Finally, principals who share power should not fear losing power. Most research indicates that leaders who share power, by doing so, become more influential with teachers. Hornstein and his colleagues asked teachers how much influence they felt they had on how the school was run and how much influence they felt the principal had. Hornstein found that "when teachers perceive their principal's level of influence to be high, they are likely to

perceive their own level of influence to be relatively high."

In its publication "Managerial Control: A Middle Way," which analyzed Hornstein's study among others, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management concluded:

> Because power is reciprocal, an increase in the power of teachers should lead to a corresponding increase in the power of the principal. Conversely, the principal who is stingy with power also circumscribes his own power.

Practical Suggestions

The field of education has often looked to business to find models for decision-making structures, and until fairly recently, businesses in turn have taken their models from the military. Yet over the last thirty years or so businesses have begun to cast off the hierarchical, authoritarian kinds of decision-making bequeathed to them by the military. To do this, many managers have looked to Peter Drucker.

Drucker, in a book in which he presents a potpourri of his ideas and those of others (like McGregor and Maslow), suggests that the old form of motivation represented by the "carrot and the stick" is no longer viable. In brief, Drucker believes that in a society as affluent as this one, "the stick" (fear of starvation and destitution) is no longer a real weapon. Conversely, the only "carrot" (material reward) that can truly motivate people would be so big that to rely on it would produce runaway inflation and collapse of the economy. Instead, Drucker, like the researchers discussed in the previous section, recommends motivating workers by giving them more responsibilities for decision-making and more opportunities to make contributions that really make a difference to the organization. Although Drucker's ideas are aimed principally at business and industry, reading his work can be extremely helpful to school administrators interested in learning more about new theories of decision-making and power.

Exercises to help schools and school groups assess their decision-making structures and learn more about how participative decision-making works have been collected by Schmuck and his colleagues. For example, the "Card Discovery Problem" requires participants to find a unique

card—something impossible without information-sharing by all members. The "Lost on the Moon" exercise (the same exercise used by Piper in the decision-making experiment described in the previous section) teaches participants to reach decisions by consensus by rank ordering equipment most useful for a two-hundred-mile trip across the moon. These exercises are helpful because they allow groups to learn participative decision-making by using it to solve hypothetical problems unlikely to arouse anxiety or strong feeling.

Most administrators interviewed for this report used some sort of participative decision-making system. The systems were about equally divided between consultation and consensus, while a few were "decentralized." (In the decentralized systems, fewer decisions are made by the organization as a whole because responsibility for certain kinds of decisions is distributed throughout the organization.) In all systems, however, administrators maintained that some decisions must be made unilaterally by the organization leader.

An extremely detailed and sophisticated decentralized decision-making system has been developed by the Mt. Diablo Unified School District in Concord, California. The confusion and lack of coordination that result from some decentralized systems are avoided by comprehensive charts that clearly specify who has the power to make decisions in several hundred different situations. According to Superintendent Jim Slezak, many people in his district originally believed that a district of forty thousand students was simply too large for shared decision-making. But because everyone clearly understands who has responsibility for each type of decision, things run smoothly.

A publication issued by the district calls the system "individual school management" and emphasizes that here the principal has become the "key leader." According to the publication, the system "places educational decision-making as close to the learner as possible through the involvement of teachers, students and parents." This document contains detailed decision analysis charts for superintendent and board and for school principals and staff. It also contains information on specific shared decision-making techniques such as the Delphi

Process and Force Field Analysis, as well as a short section on the importance of school climate to shared decision-making.

Principal Don Hurst of the Meadowbrook Middle School explained that the decision-making technique he uses most often is consultation. For instance, when hiring new teachers, a committee made up of a counselor, a dean, a team leader, and another teacher scores the applicants. Hurst then makes the final decision. Hurst stated that in most decisions "I get input from everyone—staff, parents, and community—but in the final analysis, I make the decision."

Superintendent Bob Pedrick maintained that in his district (the Cupertino Union School District) the key to shared decision-making is at the cabinet level. Cupertino has a district cabinet made up of associate and assistant superintendents, directors of maintenance and finance, and six principals. Each principal is responsible for communicating with and bringing feedback from six other principals. After each meeting, the principals on the cabinet each report the proceedings of the meeting to six other principals and get their reactions.

A similar system on the school level was explained by Principal Jarold Warren of the Kent Middle School. In this school, a Principal's Advisory Council made up of staff members meets with Warren to voice staff concerns and take ideas back to staff members.

Many administrators simply do not have enough training to implement shared decision-making systems. In a telephone interview, Robert De Vries explained an exercise used by him and colleague Mark Robert to train administrators in Los Angeles's staff development program for administrators. The activity is designed to help administrators assess the types of decision-making they use and learn to use other appropriate techniques. Decisions are divided into four types:

- consensus (when acceptance and trust of staff are needed)
- command (when constrained by time and need for special expertise)
- consultation (when more input is needed)
- convenience (when no one cares about the decision)

The goal of the activity is to show administrators that blindly insisting on only one kind of decision-making for every decision can be inefficient or destructive of trust.

It is clear that there are a number of different structures for shared decision-making. Consultation, consensus, and decentralization all have their place and all contribute to leadership effectiveness.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

If you asked educational researchers about leadership effectiveness, many would not answer in terms of time management or training programs or school climate or decision-making structures or even power. They would, instead, talk about the personal style or ways of leading used by effective leaders. To such researchers, leadership effectiveness virtually means the same as "leadership style."

Leadership style is the sum of the techniques a leader uses in influencing people to strive willingly for group goals. These techniques may be the result of philosophy, training, or personal attributes. They also may depend on the needs and receptivity of the group being led.

While personal decision-making style may be considered a leader attribute, personal leadership style is something separate from the organizational decision-making structures discussed in the last chapter. Leadership style is related to school climate in that the school or district climate is partially a result of the human relations-oriented behavior of the school administrator.

Theories and Research Findings

Spiess has provided a useful review of previous theories of leadership style. One early view held that an indefinable "charisma" separated leaders from followers and was necessary for leadership effectiveness. A later "trait theory" attempted to pick out more specific traits that were common to good leaders. These included everything from gregariousness and degree of authoritarianism to height and eye color. As might be expected, adherents to the trait theory discovered such a large number of leadership traits (many of them contradictory) that no one was able to agree on what the most basic traits of leadership were. Spiess contended that, "despite extensive study, researchers have been unable to develop any meaningful list of attributes of leadership."

Many observers have suggested that attributes of leadership effectiveness depend heavily on the leader's situation. The ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management pointed out this fact in a Research Action Brief entitled "Leadership: Improving Its Effectiveness":

> Some researchers suggest that it may not be useful or even accurate to talk about leadership effectiveness as something that can exist apart from specific situations. Different leadership styles will be effective in different situations. In fact, while nearly everyone has what it takes to be an effective leader in some situations, almost no one can be a good leader in all situations.

Seminal research on this theory was done in 1967 by Fiedler, who studied the relationships among two major styles of leadership (task-oriented and relationship-oriented) and three basic kinds of situations (favorable, unfavorable, and moderately favorable). To Fiedler, the "favorableness" of the situation meant a combination of three things: the status or "position power" of the leader, the quality of relations between the leader and members, and how structured the task was. In a favorable situation, all these things were high; in an unfavorable situation, all were low. In a "moderately favorable" situation only two were favorable.

Fiedler discovered that task-oriented leaders work best when the situation is either very favorable or very unfavorable. Relationship-oriented leaders, however, work best in a moderately favorable situation. Fiedler's choice of the words "favorable" and "unfavorable" seems unfortunate. To some leaders an "unfavorable" situation is actually the most advantageous. They function best in the toughest situations. Perhaps Fiedler would have made things clearer if he had used value-free terms like "situation one," "situation two," and "situation three" to replace "favorable," "moderately favorable," and "unfavorable."

In 1972, Fiedler applied this theory (which he called the contingency theory) to leadership training in an attempt to explain why leadership training was not always helpful. Fiedler reasoned that leadership training usually improves the

"favorableness" of the situation by improving relationships, task structure, or control. Since some leaders work better when the situation is very unfavorable, changing their situation to one moderately favorable will decrease their effectiveness. Likewise, since relationship-oriented leaders work best in moderately favorable situations, making their situation very favorable diminishes effectiveness.

Fiedler suggested that these findings had implications useful for those conducting leadership training. They suggested first that there were empirical ways to decide who ought to receive leadership training. He also felt that training could teach leaders how to modify the favorableness of the situation to match their own particular style. Conversely, one might conclude that training could also be designed to help leaders modify their styles to fit particular situations.

Working at about the same time as Fiedler, Halpin formulated a theory of leadership style that he felt synthesized trait theory and situational (or contingency) theory. Like Fiedler, Halpin rejected the idea of leadership traits that made certain people effective leaders. But he did believe that certain "behaviors" were characteristic of leadership effectiveness in spite of particular situations. One of these behaviors was "initiating structure," which meant "the leader's behavior in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure." Initiating structure looks a lot like Fiedler's "task-oriented behavior," though it is somewhat broader.

The other behavior described by Halpin as important to leadership effectiveness was "consideration" or "behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff." This behavior, in turn, looks a lot like Fiedler's "relationship-oriented" behavior.

One main difference between Halpin and Fiedler is that Halpin did not seem to care whether leaders were higher in consideration or in initiating structure. To him, both were of utmost importance; as his research with educational and military leaders bore out, leaders low in either quality were ineffective

leaders.

Kunz and Hoy, using their own index of effectiveness, found, like Halpin, that the most effective leaders were high in both initiating structure and consideration. Of the two attributes, the authors found that the most effective leaders were highest in initiating structure.

Kunz and Hoy discovered that the amount of direction teachers were willing to accept from administrators concerning their professional life varied from school to school. The researchers called this amount of acceptance the "professional zone of acceptance." They reasoned that this zone of acceptance would be a good indication of the leader's effectiveness. If teachers were willing to accept a lot of direction from administrators, Kunz and Hoy believed the administrators must be effective leaders.

The authors measured the professional zone of acceptance in fifty high schools in New Jersey and correlated it with their administrators' scores on initiating structure and consideration on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). They found significant correlations.

One cannot help wondering, however, if the "professional zone of acceptance" really is the same thing as leadership effectiveness. What about a school where the professional zone of acceptance is low because the leader is skillful at helping teachers to direct themselves? What about leaders who are good at influencing but not directing? The fact that teachers with a high zone of acceptance have leaders who are high in initiating structure might just mean, after all, that directive leaders (high in initiating structure) tend to have followers who like to be directed (with a high zone of acceptance). It seems likely the professional zone of acceptance says as much about subordinates as it does about leaders.

Miskell attempted to correlate situational factors with leader attributes. Although his writing is sometimes frustratingly obscure and although he concluded by recommending that measurement instruments for situational variables needed to be refined, Miskell did find some interesting correlations. Of these, two are perhaps the most useful. The first is that administrators

rated effective by subordinates and having organizations rated high in organizational effectiveness were high in consideration. The second is that administrators in effective organizations who were rated high in effectiveness by both subordinates and superordinates were high in initiating structure. This suggests that leadership effectiveness is at least partially in the eye of the beholder. Superordinates correlate effectiveness with both high consideration and high initiating structure, whereas subordinates see effectiveness manifest mainly in consideration. This research confirms common sense. To be rated high by staff, you need human relations skills; to be rated high by the boss, you need human relations skills and you need to get things done as well.

Gramenz looked at the leader behavior characteristics that resulted in greater school effectiveness. Gramenz examined fifty "individually guided education/multiunit elementary schools" and used performance objectives to measure their effectiveness. He found that school effectiveness was higher when principal behavior was high in

- instrumental leadership (specifying procedures to be followed and assigning specific tasks)
- supportive leadership (being friendly and approachable)
- participative leadership (consulting with subordinates and allowing them to influence decisions)

In sum, most research on leadership style confirms administrators' experience. To be effective leaders, administrators must be both relationship-oriented and task-oriented; they must work well with people, and they must be able to get things done. Some research, notably Fiedler's, suggests that in some situations relationship-oriented leaders will be most effective, while in others task-oriented leaders will be most effective.

Practitioners' Views

"Leadership style" is a description of behavior and, as such, is hard to measure through a self-report. It is difficult to get a valid report about someone's leadership style without actually testing it with an instrument such as the LBDQ. In fact, it is

probably as difficult as measuring IQ without an IQ test. As Halpin found, merely talking with administrators about their leadership styles is not very effective as a way of actually learning what these styles are. Not only are self-reports notoriously inaccurate, but a leader may use different styles in different situations.

Nevertheless, talking with administrators can reveal something useful about their beliefs about style. When the administrators interviewed for this report were asked whether they were more task-oriented or human relations-oriented, the reply was "human relations-oriented" by almost four to one. Several were quick to add, however, that "getting things done" is important too. Superintendent Jessie Kobayashi noted that if the alternative to "human relations-oriented" had been "goal-oriented" she would have chosen it, suggesting that the term "task-oriented" may have sounded a bit narrow and shortsighted to some administrators.

Perhaps even more revealing were the administrators' responses about what they believed to be their own personal strengths. These responses over and over again revealed how "people-oriented" the administrators are.

Principal Don Hurst cited as a major strength his "humanistic approach to dealing with people." Former Principal Alberta Martone answered "getting people to work together and feel good about the school." Superintendent Tom Giugni put it, "If I had a strength, it's the ability to get along with people of all ages." Many others offered similar answers. It seems clear that effective administrators hold human relations as a high priority.

Neither researchers nor practitioners offer much practical advice on how to develop an appropriate leader style. This is perhaps because in the past leadership style was thought not so much to be a matter of skill as a matter of beliefs or priorities. It is also probably because early research on leadership style was inspired by a desire to identify those who would make good leaders rather than to change the behavior of those in leadership positions.

Nowadays, leaders concerned about leadership style must

look to ideas on improving communication and school climate to learn to be effective in their relationships and to ideas on planning and time management to be more effective in their tasks.

CONCLUSION

What makes an effective leader? The answer depends on whom you ask. Some administrators (both effective and not so effective) look for the keys to leadership effectiveness within the nature of the job itself. They are pragmatic rather than idealistic in their concerns. They believe that for leadership to be effective, things have to change. For them, the need is for more training, more resources, less paperwork, more assistance, and time management skills. These educators (and the theoreticians and researchers who share their views) see school administrators as having the potential for leadership effectiveness if only they could be freed from the chains that bind them.

Others never mention constraints on the job or problems that make leadership difficult. Instead they appear to be concerned almost solely with school climate. These educators believe that a healthy school climate is what makes leadership possible. They can in turn be divided into two camps: those who believe that a healthy school climate springs almost automatically from leader characteristics and those who concentrate on the techniques and projects a leader can use to improve school climate.

Others educators when queried about leadership effectiveness immediately focus on decision-making structures. They believe that when an organization is structured so that everyone has some influence on decision-making, followers contribute gladly to organizational goals.

And finally, some educational researchers (and these are some of the most narrow as well as the most idealistic in their focus) look for the secrets of leadership effectiveness in leadership style. Whether a leader is task-oriented or relationship-oriented is to them central to leadership effectiveness.

Whom should we listen to? Who has the right answer? Should we worry about making the administrator's job more manageable, or should we worry about what makes the administrator a good manager? The answer, of course, is that we

must listen to all these opinions and be concerned about all these points of view.

For, on the whole, nothing prevents us from paying attention to all these factors. Except for their fine points, these views are not philosophically contradictory. A leader can be at the same time concerned about eliminating constraints on effectiveness, improving school climate, sharing decision-making, and strengthening leadership style.

Indeed, it is now time for the proponents of all these views to move closer together. It is time for them to listen more carefully and talk more clearly to one another. For it will be, after all, the integration of all these views that will produce the most effective leaders.

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